175 revived with, under the circumstances, the Cathedral as their focus of expression. In Roumania fate worked out things differently. The seventh to the tenth century in east-central Europe saw much forest cutting and planting of villages, and the widespread languages of these settlers belonged to the Slavonic family which may have had its early home in or near Polish Galicia. This linguistic influence penetrated Roumania and combined itself with the Latin heritage to make the later language of the country. Magyars passed through on their way to the Hungarian plain, and Huns and Visigoths had gone that way before. So the local tradition weakened along the valley and lowland ways and kept itself alive in the highlands where still dwell people who are no doubt largely descendants of the primeval cultivators with many waves of culture washed over them but the Roman influence vital still.

[197]

[184]

346

Bell tower, Borsec.

RUMANIA ED I

342 Windows are generally double even in the simpler houses, one opening to the inside, the other to the outside. They are always barred and set in a wooden frame (Jänecke, 1918: 27-28).

342 531 The Rumanian house is noteworthy for its exterior decorations. Special attention and much imagination is given to the woodwork. Much art is evident in the pillars supporting the roof over the veranda (fig. 57d), lintels supporting the eaves, the railings of the veranda and the window and door frames. The corners of houses may have designs in low relief. Painted designs may be placed on the wall in great abundance (figs. 57a, 57b). Because of the lesser opportunity of embellishment through woodwork and because whitewashed walls lend themselves well to painting, painting of the exterior is characteristic of the plains. The Rumanian does not shy away from bright colors. Ultramarine is most popular, for it is said to scare away evil spirits. Combinations of red, blue and yellow are common, and dark green shades are also favored (Jänecke, 1918: 23). [789] [822]

342 [84] [341] The basic difference between the house of the lowlands and those of the mountain region is that the latter are of two-story construction (fig. 64a). Building materials in the mountains are stone and wood rather than wicker and mud. When houses are built on an incline a high stone foundation forms the ground floor (pivniţa). This can be used for stables, storage rooms and also as a wine cellar. This form persists even when the terrain is flat. The higher house is appreciated for its better view, greater security and suitability for defense.

While the floor plan often consists of a row of rooms similar to that of the lowlands, a number of changes have taken place. The anteroom with its large hearth is generally left out (fig. 64b). This is due to the fact that the bricks that line the hearth are not available, and the wooden walls are more inflammable than the predominantly mud ones of the plains. Where the hearth is present it is put into a special annex. Instead of the hearth an oven-stove (a combination stove and oven) is used, which permits the main room to be used as living room and sleeping room as well as a kitchen. [354]

The two-room house predominates; due to the absence of the connecting anteroom, each room has a door to the veranda (ţerdak) (fig. 66). Sometimes the veranda at the top of the stairway is expanded into a hall-like structure (foişor) (fig. 64a) covered by a hipped roof at right angles to the main roof. In summer most activities take place there.

The foundation is made of rocks or of large pebbles from the river. Walls are made of horizontal logs or boards which cross at the corners, each fitting into a notch in the other. A mud or lime plaster is never omitted, and to facilitate this plastering thin laths are nailed diagonally across the beams.

The roof is steeper than in the plains and protrudes further over the house. The support is in the form of a collar. The rafters tend to be too widely spaced, which results in slight bending of the battens; but, while it makes for a weaker roof, this results in softer and more pleasing lines. The four corners are not sharp but tend to be rounded (fig. 62). Wooden shingles are almost exclusively used for roof covering. They are about 15 centimeters wide and may be as long as 3 meters. They overlap two to four times. Shorter shingles form 6–10 rows. The smaller shingles may have their ends in the form of swallow tails or other decorative shapes. The ridge shows a special development. On the windward side the first layer of shingles is made to protrude over the ridgepole (fig. 62). These shingles also have excised patterns and are very ornamental. The ridgepoles may extend slightly over the hip and have a small gabled roof, one shingle in height (fig. 62). This provides an opening for the smoke to escape through. Ornamental poles rise at either end of the ridgepole (fig. 61).

Chimneys are lacking and the smoke may escape through openings at the ridge or otherwise through the roof, which then shows all shades of gray to black. In some areas of Oltenia in southwestern Rumania one finds wooden chimneys (fig. 65). These are made of wicker and daub and are covered with shingles.

A special development in the foothills of the Southern Carpathian Mountains is the privy, which is in the form of an annex located at the end of the veranda (fig. 64a).

In general the buildings in the mountain districts show a greater variation than those of the plains. The woodwork is superior, and shows a great deal of inventiveness. The construction, however, is irregular, sloppy and often not functional. Pillars that carry no weight may be very thick, while those that must support much weight may be much too slender (Jänecke, 1918: 35–43).

Kulas (fig. 67) are found only in the mountainous regions of Oltenia in the district of Mehedinti, Gorj and Râmnicu-Vâlcea. They were built by the boyars, the wealthy landowners. The oldest ones come from the period when the Rumanian rulers were paying tribute to the Sultan. The ground plan is a square 7 by 12 meters in length. The width of the walls is 30–70 centimeters. The kula (fig. 69) may have three or four stories, each about 2.5 meters in height. Each story has one room. The ground floor is used for storage; sometimes a well is built into it, and occasionally there is a subterranean escape passage. The upper floors may also be used for storage, but are mainly living quarters. Windows are generally found only on one side; the other walls are provided with loopholes. On the top floor there is generally an open veranda (ğerdak) about 3 meters wide, the roof over which is supported by pillars (fig. 67). The exposure is toward the valley and the south. On the side opposite the ğerdak there is a simple wooden balcony under the eaves (fig. 67). Many kulas have a privy tower attached to them.

342
712
[531] The stairway, about 1.25 meters wide made of massive logs, is generally on the inside of the buildings; when it is located on the outside it leads onto the wooden balcony. The exterior is white-washed. In addition, the surface is decorated with molded bands around each story division. There may also be a vertical division, thus creating a number of large panels. While these areas are symmetrical, neither they nor the molded bands that enclose them have any relation to the placing of windows or pillars (Jänecke, 1918: 62-63).

342
[175]
[563] In 1895 there still existed about 55,000 earth huts (bordei) which were inhabited by the poorest population, generally Gypsies (fig. 63). They are common in the Danubian plain. Over an excavation 1-3 meters deep is placed a gabled roof. The roof is made of boards over which earth is laid. Sometimes reeds are placed over the boards before the earthen cover is added. The entrance is on one of the gabled sides, generally with a southerly exposure, and a window is placed on each gable side (Jänecke, 1918: 4).

343
351 Farm Buildings. In the lowlands the buildings are arranged in no definite order; though generally the house is closest to the road. The corn-house (cedar) is either opposite to or at right angles to the house so that it can be watched. The yard and orchard are surrounded by a fence. The simplest fence is made of wickerwork between wooden poles. More often, however, it is made of boards
[556] that have intricate excised designs (fig. 60). The wealthy people
[563] may add an imposing gateway with a small door. Flower or vegetable
[244] gardens are rare, and the latter are called bulgări, since they are
[247] generally kept by immigrant Bulgarians who grow all the vegetables
[245] for town consumption (Stratilesco, 1907: 233). The farmstead is surrounded by shady trees, and there is generally a plum orchard at the back of the farm buildings (Jänecke, 1918: 8-9).

[184] In the mountain regions the arrangement of the buildings in the yard differs from that of the lowlands. The stables and other buildings are arranged on the border of the yard in a horseshoe form to serve as protection for the house. The yard is usually very small, and has a strong high palisade with a massive gateway, the whole giving the farm a fortress-like appearance (the author points to the presence of bears in summer and wolves in winter) (Jänecke, 1918: 32-35).

343
[184] In the lowlands there are generally not many additional farm buildings in the yard, and this fact is correlated with the pattern of building additional [illegible] to the house, a more economical and practical procedure. Stables are of the simplest lathwork or wickerwork, covered with a straw roof. Sheds for the storage of straw, hay and cornstalks are absent, for the latter are stacked into tall round piles in the open. The baking oven for summer use, made of mud and bricks, has a hipped roof supported by four pillars

The only noteworthy building is the corn-house (gîtele de porumb) (figs. 59a, 59b), which is found, however, only among the well-to-do. Unlike the house, it is a two-story structure. The lower floor has plastered walls, and serves as stable and cart-shed. The upper story is made of wickerwork, often arranged in interesting patterns, permitting the air to circulate. The attic is used for the storage of food and is reached by a ladder from the outside. The hipped roof is of straw (JKnecke, 1918: 25-27).

In the mountain regions stables have only three walls, and animals stay in these half-open shelters even in winter. The imposing corn-house of the plains is rarely found in the mountains. In its place is erected a long narrow building of wickerwork. This rests on short stone pillars about 80 centimeters above the ground and is covered by a shingled roof. Since the ground floor of the house is used for storage there is no need for many additional farm buildings (JKnecke, 1918: 43-45).

CONCLUSION

Having presented an area by area discussion of the village forms and farmsteads, it is desirable to trace the distribution of certain major elements. Roughly, four types of settlement pattern can be distinguished. They are the village consisting of widely scattered hamlets (Cvijić's Stari Vlah type); the agglomerated village (Cvijić's Timok type); the road village (Cvijić's Mačva type); and the čiftlik type, the settlement created by Turkish landowners. The first of these is composed of widely scattered houses in no regular order, grouped into hamlets a number of which constitute a village. It predominates in Slovenia, Western Croatia, Bosnia and Hercegovina, western Serbia, and in the mountain areas of central Bulgaria and Rumania. A variant of this form, characterized by more closely spaced houses within the separate hamlets (Cvijić's Ibar type), exists in the Karst regions behind the Adriatic coast, in Albania and southwestern and western Serbia. Hilly terrain and forested regions are conducive to this scatter, but are not the sole determinants. The Ibar type is associated with greater barrenness of soil and the necessity of conserving arable land.

Agglomerated villages are characterized by crowded houses set in an irregular order along crooked streets. They prevail in eastern and southern Serbia and in southern Macedonia. While they are associated with the necessity of conserving arable land in some of the more barren regions of eastern Serbia, this explanation will not hold for the fertile basins of Kosovo, Kumanovo and Skoplje. Here they are no doubt the result of diffusion from the Aegean coast, as these areas are on communication lines which run up the Vardar and Morava River valleys from the coast toward Beograd.

The third or Mačva type is that of the more or less planned village lying on both sides of the highway. These villages tend to